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ABSTRACT

In the communicative approach, English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners use scripted and unscripted language. In practice, scripted language is typically over-utilized at the expense of unscripted language. This study explores the characteristics of scripted and unscripted language in 11 beginner-level EFL students in a Japanese junior high school. When students written work was compared with their textbook, their messages were shown to be scripted and/or unscripted vis-a-vis the textbook. This study discusses how textbooks in Japan make use of pre-communicative activities but omit communicative ones. A communicative activity that has been shown to enable students to produce unscripted writing is provided. The implication is that teachers may use the findings to plan lessons that encourage learners to use unscripted language to develop communicative competence. If unscripted language is better understood and if characteristics of beginner second language writing are better understood, then this concept can be effectively used to evaluate and modify communicative language teaching materials and activities. Six practical appendices are included that provide sample handouts and detailed activity plans. (Contains 29 references.) (KFT)

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Learner Use of Scripted and Unscripted Language in the Communicative Approach

Peter T. Sakura

研究の要約

コミュニカティヴ・アプローチの理論によると外国語として英語を習得する生徒たちは教科書に書かれている会話と生徒が自分達で考えた会話の両方を使います。研究の対象は教科書の英語と教科書にない英語のどこが違うかということです。研究の方法は中学生が書いたメッセージ（教科書に書かれていた会話と自分達が考えた会話）の分析です。教科書にないせりふを言う力を育てることが、生徒たちのコミュニケーション能力を増すことになります。

Abstract

In the communicative approach, in theory EFL learners use scripted and unscripted language, but in practice scripted language might be overutilized at the expense of unscripted language. This study explores characteristics of scripted and unscripted language of 11 beginner-level EFL students in a Japanese junior high school. When their written messages were compared with the textbook, their messages were shown to be either scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. The messages were also shown to be unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher. The implication is that teachers may use the

findings to plan lessons that encourage learners to use unscripted language to develop communicative competence.

Introduction

The communicative approach, also called communicative language teaching (CLT), continues to gain acceptance by teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Japan (Shimaoka, 1999). Broadly speaking, a typical CLT lesson has three parts: "Teaching points are introduced in dialogue form, grammatical items are isolated for controlled practice, and then freer activities are provided" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 82). Recent research (Gorsuch, 1999; Ford, 2000; Lamie, 1999) suggests, however, that textbooks used in Japan omit freer activities. Such omissions illustrate Richards and Rodgers' view that "how to implement CLT principles at the level of classroom procedures . . . remains central to discussions of the communicative approach" (p. 82). They conclude that the question requires "systematic investigation of the use of different kinds of activities and procedures" in second language (L2) classrooms (p. 82). One aspect to investigate is the distinction between what Littlewood (1981, p. 8) calls "precommunicative activities" and "communicative activities." One way they differ is that in communicative activities students make use of language that is unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher, i.e., language that the teacher does not know beforehand the student will use.

In this study first I discuss how some textbooks in Japan make use of precommunicative activities, but omit communicative activities. When teachers perceive the omission, they can modify activities. Modifying activities should be done with an understanding of current Ministry of Education guidelines, goals of CLT, and the role of communicative activities in a structurally complete CLT

lesson. A lesson is complete if it has all three parts mentioned earlier (introduction, practice, then freer activities).

In a study of L2 writing of beginner EFL students, I show a communicative activity that enabled students to produce writing that was unscripted. In the activity, which was called the Q&A task (see Appendix A), second-year students at a junior high school wrote questions to me, an assistant language teacher (ALT). In the study I focus on characteristics of the students' L2 writing in order to show that the presence of unscripted language in learner writing is a characteristic of a freer activity.

The implication of the study is that if the concept of unscripted language is better understood and if characteristics of beginner L2 writing are better understood, then the concept can be effectively used to evaluate and modify CLT materials and activities.

Literature Review

EFL Textbooks in Japan

Are communicative activities included in the curriculum in Japanese secondary schools? Preliminary research results are mixed. Torikai ("Professor calls," 2000) argues that many people are not aware of how much the teaching of EFL in Japan has been reformed. She notes ("Professor calls," 2000, p. 8) that Ministry of Education guidelines have been revised and that English textbooks "include more dialogues." But just by including more dialogues, do language activities in textbooks encourage students to use unscripted language?

Some researchers and teachers in the EFL field in Japan argue that textbooks lack communicative activities. In an analysis of EFL textbooks, Gorsuch (1999) found that students were not called on to

use what she calls unscripted language. In an analysis of six of the best-selling Ministry-approved high school EFL textbooks in Japan, she chose a lesson at random from each textbook. Of the six lessons with a total of 42 sections, 41 sections did not call for use of unscripted language. For example, in writing activities students were to "insert two correct words into two English sentences" (p. 12), "write a specified number of missing English words into sentences suggested by Japanese translations" and "translate single Japanese sentences into English" (p. 14). In speaking activities students were to "read single words and sentences aloud" and to read short dialogues aloud (p. 12). She concludes that over-reliance on use of scripted language prevents self-expression, thereby not supporting "the development of students' communicative abilities" (p. 9). Gorsuch writes, "If a teacher were very determined and very knowledgeable about creating communicative tasks, then he or she might be able to adapt some of the activities in the books" and that "teachers in general do this (select, adapt and revise textbook activities) anyway" (p. 9).

Like Gorsuch, who found that Ministry of Education guidelines did not match Ministry-approved textbooks used in EFL classes in Japanese high schools, Ford (2000) points to a discrepancy between publishers' claims and the learning activities in textbooks widely used at Japanese colleges and universities. For example, the authors of one textbook claim that their textbook "achieves real communication" and "systematically builds students' ability to communicate their own thoughts, opinions, and feelings" (Ford, 2000, p. 2). But, Ford argues, the claim is not supported because tasks for communication are limited to student reading aloud of scripted dialogues in every chapter in the textbook (p. 2). Ford argues that "parroting" manufactured input does not constitute a "genuine communicative activity" (p. 3).

If scripted language is widely used in Japanese high schools, colleges and universities, then it would not be surprising to know that it is a teaching practice in junior high school classes also. Anecdotal evidence is provided by Lamie (1999), who writes:

> In Japan teachers have a curriculum that states that its goal is to develop students' communicative competence, but textbooks remain focused on the presentation and rote testing of grammatical items. As a result, teachers, in order to comply with government policy and student demands, find themselves in the position of having to modify or supplement materials available. (p. 1)

If student unscripted language does not take place, then teachers can use adapted activities that aim at "personalizing the coursebook" by encouraging students to use language introduced in the textbook in ways that relate to their personal situation (Brookes & Grundy, 1998, p. 33) or otherwise going beyond the textbook in ways that are appropriate for early-stage EFL learners (Reber, 1997; Umiki, 1996). Some textbook writers in Japan acknowledge the need for teachers to modify activities (Helgeson, 2000; Gatton, 2000).

Modification of textbook activities at the junior high level may be done by clarifying Ministry of Education guidelines, and by making explicit which aspects of CLT techniques need to be emphasized. Specifically, clarifying the concept of unscripted writing and its role in the context of EFL classes in junior high schools may enable teachers to ensure it plays a proper role in the curriculum. Such clarification can assist teachers who report that they personally need a deeper understanding of the communicative approach to effectively implement the approach's innovations (Li, 1998; Tanida, 1998).

Goals of CLT

A main goal of communicative language teaching is the development of communicative competence, a term introduced by Hymes (Saville-Troike, 1996, p. 362). The term encompasses grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 27). Stated briefly, it is the ability not only to communicate using rules of grammar, but also to use language appropriately in social contexts and to employ verbal and nonverbal strategies to overcome breakdowns in communication.

Embracing the notion of communicative competence, the School Curriculum Council (1998, July 29, p. 14), an advisory body to the Ministry of Education, now advocates what it calls "practical communicative competence." "Practical" was included to emphasize putting into practice use of L2. For instance, students might develop practical communicative competence by interviewing ALTs (Ministry of Education, 1999). In such interview activities, students, using L2 in speech or in writing, would ask an ALT questions to which the students would like to know the answers. Another example would be students using more English as the medium of interaction in the classroom, "not just learning how to buy a ticket, or ordering food in a restaurant" (Takahashi, as cited in Leonard, 2000, p. 39). According to the Ministry of Education, practical communicative competence is developed when learners' communication skills are "*sekkyokuteki*," which means "active" or "outgoing" (Takakura & Murata, 1998, p. 201).

While the main goal of CLT is development of practical communicative competence, one part of the approach is the development of self-expression. Various writers in the field have recognized that when messages in CLT activities are exchanged, the messages should reflect the learner's purpose. CLT activities call on

students to "use language according to the learners' own purpose" (Gorsuch, 1999, p. 8). In other words, the student should be given the chance to express his or her opinions (Kitao & Kitao, 1996, p. 9), i.e., to "speak and write about what one wants to communicate" (Kita Junior High School, 1996, p. 6) and "to write and express one's ideas" (Ministry of Education, 1989, p. 95). In other words, CLT is "dictated by pupils' needs and interests" (University of Wales Education Department, n.d.). Hence, self-expression is an important goal of the approach. In conclusion, interpreted from different perspectives, CLT goals overlap, and have many characteristics. In the communicative approach students are encouraged to express themselves, to develop "active" communication skills and "practical" communicative competence.

Precommunicative and Communicative Activities

To meet CLT goals, two kinds of learning activities are used: precommunicative activities and communicative activities. Littlewood (1981, p. 89) defines them this way:

> Precommunicative activities aim to give the learners fluent control over linguistic forms, so that the lower-level processes will be capable of unfolding automatically in response to higher-level decisions based on meanings. Although the activities may emphasize the links between forms and meanings, the main criterion for success is whether the learner produces acceptable language. In communicative activities, the production of linguistic forms becomes subordinate to higher-level decisions, related to the communication of meanings. The learner is thus expected to increase his [or her] skill in starting from an intended

> meaning, selecting suitable language forms from his [or her] total repertoire, and producing them fluently. The criterion for success is whether the meaning is conveyed effectively.

Note that one kind of activity is not more appropriate than another; both play a part in CLT. Still, Littlewood's distinction might explain the difference in perceptions of what the communicative approach is that are held by some textbook authors and some teachers. Authors who make use of precommunicative activities claim their textbooks follow the communicative approach, but there are teachers who want a balance of communicative and precommunicative activities.

If a teacher seeks to modify an activity and make it communicative rather than precommunicative, the activity should be designed to increase the learner's skill "in starting from an intended meaning" and "selecting suitable language forms from his [or her] total repertoire" (Littlewood, 1981, p. 89). That is, if the learner language reflects the learner's purpose, then the words to be used by the learner would not necessarily be predetermined by the teacher. In this study a communicative activity is one in which "the teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 68). This aspect of CLT is key. In communicative activities teachers are expected to not "specify the language that the students are to use" (p. 68). If the teacher does not know what language the learner will use, then the teacher and the learner are no longer working from a script. The language is unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher.

The actual language used by the learner in a communicative activity is unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher, but it may be either scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. If the words are given in the textbook, the language is scripted vis-à-vis the textbook. If the learner uses words not in the textbook, the language is unscripted

vis-à-vis the textbook. To determine if learner language is scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook, I used the following working definition.

Working Definition of Scriptedness Vis-à-vis the Textbook

Because there exists a gap between CLT goals and materials, and use of unscripted language can bridge that gap, it is necessary to state what unscripted language is and is not. Writing is scripted vis-à-vis the textbook if it consists of given words for given meanings. In this study, I analyze questions the students wrote to me in the Q&A task. The words are said to be given if they are given in the textbook. The question is scripted in the linguistic sense. The meaning of the question also comes from the textbook. Therefore, the meaning is given, i.e., the question is scripted in the semantic sense as well. For example, if a student copied the question "Have you ever been to London?" from the textbook 15 times for homework, as one student in the EFL class at the school did, it would be using scripted language, but not in a communicative activity. If the student chose to ask me the same question, it would be using scripted language vis-à-vis the textbook in a communicative activity. If the student used language that also appeared in the book or the classroom handouts, then the question would also be scripted vis-à-vis the textbook or scripted vis-à-vis the handouts, but to be concise the language will be referred to simply as scripted vis-à-vis the textbook.

On the other hand, writing can be said to be unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook if words used are for new meanings. Three kinds of unscripted writing will be described: one is writing that consists of given words to make new meanings. An example of using given words for new meanings is if the student uses "Have you ever visited

. . ." from a part of the textbook that had the expression "Have you ever visited Tokyo?" and then uses a place name taken from another part of the textbook. The student might write, "Have you ever visited Seoul?" The second kind of unscripted writing is new words used for new meanings. Using new words for new meanings would mean going beyond the textbook by using a word not found in the textbook. For example, if the question "Have you ever visited Tokyo?" was in the textbook, but if "Lima" was not in the textbook, the student might write, "Have you ever visited Lima?" Lastly, another kind of unscripted writing is that which contains first language (L1) words used to make a message with a new meaning. L2 messages with some L1 used results from what Tarone calls a "language switch communication strategy," i.e., using L1 when the learner cannot produce the L2 word (Ellis, 1994, p. 397). An example would be writing, "Have you ever visited a *suizokukan*?" ("*Suizokukan*" means "aquarium.")

Rationale for the Study

The study was done to analyze an activity called the Q&A task that was used with junior high school students. The analysis was done with two aims. First, I sought to describe characteristics of beginner L2 language used in a communicative activity as being either scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. To do so I used the above working definition. Secondly, I sought to confirm if the communicative activity used was actually a communicative one rather than a precommunicative one. Did the Q&A task, when actually implemented, allow students to produce unscripted writing vis-à-vis the teacher? The rationale for the study is that by showing an example of a communicative activity, as opposed to a precommunicative one, the study might assist textbook writers and

teachers who make CLT activities. By assist, I mean not that teachers can find more learner language to classify as an end in itself. Rather, what is meant is that understanding aspects of a "freer activity" may assist teachers in integrating freer activities into lessons. The study was also to show those who are specifically interested in Ministry of Education guidelines how one activity, which was actually used, attempted to encourage learners to work towards the goal of practical communicative competence, set by the Ministry of Education.

Method

The first research question was whether or not each message written by the students would be scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. The first research question was answered by using the above working definition to analyze the messages. Comparing the actual student writing with the writing in their textbook answered the first research question. The second research question was whether the Q&A task would not restrict the students, but if it would allow them to compose written messages that were unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher (the ALT). The second research question was answered by comparing my reactions to what the students would write (not my written responses to their questions).

Participants

The school was a public junior high school called Kita Junior High School. The students who went to the school lived in a rural part of Japan. The class was a second-year class. The 13-year-old participants were three male students and eight female students from the class. Another participant was the Japanese teacher of the foreign

language (JTL). She was from Japan with 24 years teaching experience. She is a native Japanese speaker, fluent in English. I was the other participant, a native English-speaking ALT from the United States with three years teaching experience. The JTL taught a lesson to the class about four times a week. The JTL and I team-taught a lesson to the class about once a month. For anonymity the names of the school and the students were changed.

Materials

Three sets of materials were used in the study: materials of instruction, materials for student writing, and my teaching journal. The materials of instruction were two textbooks and classroom activity handouts. When the students had studied English the previous school year, their textbook was *Sunshine 1* (Shimaoka et al., 1996a). In the second school year, which was the year the study was done, the students used *Sunshine 2* (Shimaoka et al., 1996b). The students also received handouts from the JTL and me that were used for 15 in-class language activities. This study compares the student writing with the writing in the textbook. "The textbook" is the term I will use for the materials of instruction that include the two textbooks and the handouts. A list of the materials of instruction appears in Appendix B. The second set of materials used in the study were the materials for student writing. Each student had a notebook with lined paper in which he or she completed written EFL homework assignments. The notebook is called the "daily notebook" and is speculated to be widely used in junior high EFL classes in Japan. The other materials–my teaching journal–were used for daily teaching and for this study.

Procedure

Task directions. Prior to the study, the standard writing homework assignment was for the students to copy English words from their textbooks onto one page of their notebooks every day. The assignment, which was assigned by the JTL, may be called "the copying activity." In this study, the JTL agreed to change the assignment slightly. The new assignment was for the students to copy English words from their textbook onto one page of their notebooks as before, but also to write a question to me in English at the bottom of the page in their notebooks once a week for 24 weeks. The Q&A task directions were for students not to ask a "practice question" such as "How is the weather?" because both writer and audience were in the same school, so we both knew what the weather there was like. Rather, the directions were to ask a "real question." The questions could have been ones the students really wanted to know the answers to, or they could have been trivia questions meant to test my general knowledge. The students and I would then exchange messages. For research purposes only, I asked the students to write the same question in Japanese at the top of the page. By comparing the English and the Japanese I could confirm whether a question written at the bottom of any given page was intended as a message for me. I could also use both the English and the Japanese to infer the target message. At the beginning of the study, I explained the activity to the students in class using English, and then the JTL explained it to them in Japanese. Each student was given a handout with directions for doing the Q&A task.

Data collection. I created a database using the software Microsoft Word 2000 for Windows (1985-1999) and entered into a file all the words that appeared in *Sunshine 1*, *Sunshine 2*, and the handouts the students were given in class. The database had 19,544

words in it. (Many of the words in the database appear more than once. For instance, the lexical item "happy" occurs 20 times and the lexical item "play" occurs 112 times.) Entering all the textbook English into the computer enabled me to compare that corpus with the messages the students had written. In the second set of data, the student writing in the notebooks was photocopied. I answered the questions in writing, photocopied the notebook pages, and returned the notebooks to the students. The third set of data came from my teaching journal, in which I recorded the lessons taught, when they were taught and the teaching materials used. Also in the teaching journal I recorded my thoughts and observations made during the study.

Data analysis. I used the working definition described above to classify the messages based on in what ways they were scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. Given-given messages were characterized by the use of given words to make messages with meanings given in the textbook. Writing given-new messages students used given words to make messages with new meanings. New-new messages included new words for new meanings. L1-new messages used an L1 word with new meanings. Given-given messages were considered scripted vis-à-vis the textbook, but given-new messages, new-new messages, and L1-new messages were considered unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook.

To undertake the classifying procedure, first I found the question or sentence that the student wrote as a message. I recorded each English question and each accompanying Japanese question on a "message analysis instrument" (see Appendix C). From the actual English question the student wrote and the Japanese question I inferred the target English question. I would use the computer software's find function to search in the database for the question and

parts of the question written by the student. If the words were found in the database, ergo the textbook, then they would be considered "given words." If they were not found they would be "new words." If they were not found and were in Japanese they were considered "L1 words." Next, based on the words used, the meaning of the writing was determined to be either given or new. Learner language was thus classified as scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. A more detailed account is given in the Results section.

To answer the second research question, I would draw on notes made in my teaching journal and also report how I remembered reacting to the student writing in terms of knowing or not knowing "exactly what language the students will use" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 68).

Results

The First Research Question Results

A comparison of the student writing with the textbook showed that all four kinds of writing occurred. Of the 132 messages the students wrote, 19 were given-given, 88 were given-new, 19 were new-new, and six were L1-new messages. Because the students in the study were not chosen at random, only the following conclusions from a quantitative analysis should be drawn from the results. The numerical results are reported here to confirm that the four kinds of messages were observed to occur. The numerical results are reported also to describe how much student writing was analyzed to answer the two research questions. Because all four kinds of writing were observed to occur, the answer to the first research question is yes, each message was either scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. In this section I will discuss the four kinds of writing by

focusing on an example of each.

A given-given message. A student named Takashi wrote a given-given message on a page in his notebook. At the top of the page he wrote, "*Anata wa Rondon o otozureta koto ga arimasu ka.*" It is translated as "Have you ever visited London?" In the middle of the page Takashi did the copying activity, and copied other words from the textbook. At the bottom of the page he asked me, "Have you ever visited London?" From the English and the Japanese he wrote I concluded that his target question had been asked, i.e., he wrote what he had intended to write. Using the find function I found the English question in the database, which meant that the question did occur in the textbook. Therefore, in a given-given message he used scripted language vis-à-vis the textbook. He used the same syntax and morphemes, but he shifted referential focus toward an actual audience (me). A photocopy of the message appears in Figure 1. The analysis appears in Appendix C. Whether he copied the question, recalled it from memory or produced it independent of textbook input is not in the scope of this study. The claim I make is that Takashi wrote a message that also appeared in the textbook.

A given-new message. Nao wrote two given-new messages on a page in her notebook. At the top of the page she wrote, "*Peter-sensei kono gakko wa suki desu ka?*" It is translated as "Peter, do you like this school?" In the middle of the page Nao copied words from the textbook. At the bottom of the page she wrote, "Do you like this school? I like this school very much." In the database "Do you like this school," "Do you like this" and "this school" were not found. However, "Do you like," "this," and "school" were in the database. Because the question did not appear in the textbook, but all the morphemes did, the question was made up of given words, i.e.,

words that were given in the textbook. Since the words were used to make a message with a new meaning, this message is therefore called a given-new message. Nao also wrote, "I like this school very much." This message is also a given-new message. Neither "I like this school very much" nor "I like this school" nor "this school" were found in the database. The morphemes "I," "like," "this," "school," "very, "and "much" were introduced in different parts of the textbook. ("I like music very much" and "I like this prize" were syntactic structures introduced in the textbook.) Therefore, the message Nao wrote is made up of given words to make a new meaning, and is a given-new message. A copy of the page in her notebook appears in Figure 2. The analysis of the messages appears in Appendix D.

A new-new message. The third kind of writing was a new-new message. Yuka wrote a new-new message. On the page in the notebook she copied words from the textbook for language practice. At the bottom of the page she wrote in Japanese, "*Peter wa nani gata desu ka?*" In English she wrote, "Peter, what do you a blood aroup?" The target message was "Peter, what's your blood group?" The database did have "Peter," "what's your" and "group," but not "blood." Therefore, not all the words that Yuka used were given. One word was new, and the meaning of the message was new, so the message is called a new-new message. A copy of Yuka's message is in Figure 3, and its analysis in Appendix E.

An L1-new message. The fourth kind of writing was an L1-new message. Yuka also wrote an L1-new message. On the notebook page she wrote, "*Peter, todofuken wa zenbu de ikutsu desho?*," which means "Peter, how many prefectures are there in all?" Then she wrote, "Peter, how many *todoufuken* do you have?" I determined the

target message to be "Peter, how many prefectures are there in all?" I found in the database "how many," "do you have," "are there," "in," and "all," but not "*todoufuken*," "prefecture," or "in all." Therefore the target message would be a new-new message if she had used all English, but since she used Japanese the message is an L1-new message. A copy of her message is in Figure 4 and in Appendix F its analysis.

The Second Research Question Results

Drawing on notes in the teaching journal as well as on recollections from memory, I concluded that I did not know exactly what language the students would use when writing the messages. Therefore, the second research question was answered in the affirmative. While I had expected students to ask me questions using language chunks such as "Do you like . . ." and "Can you . . .," I did not know what they would ask me about. Students wrote questions I did not expect because they chose topics I did not predict, and wrote messages with new meanings using given words, new words and L1 words. For example, I did not know they would ask me my height, special ability and blood type.

In particular, the language in the new-new messages and the L1-new messages was unexpected because the students went beyond the textbook. The 19 new-new messages had certain characteristics. There were three kinds of new words the students used when they went beyond the textbook: proper nouns, common nouns, and an adjective. Some proper nouns used were Doraemon, Kitty-chan, Basho Matsuo, SPEED (twice) and GLAY (three times). The proper nouns were names of cartoon characters, a haiku poet, and rock bands. The common nouns used that did not appear in the textbook were either individual words or compound words. The individual

words were : "cartoon," "entertainer," "language," "height," "pair," "ability," "population," and "yakiniku." ("Yakiniku" is treated as a word that is used in the English language, like "teriyaki" and "sukiyaki", because no English equivalent is commonly used.) The compound words were: "blood group" and "amusement park." The adjective was "total," as in "total population."

The six L1-new messages were like the new-new messages because the students went beyond the textbook. The L1-new questions were questions that used L1 words. One student wrote "*tako*," for which the target was "octopus." Yuka wrote "*todoufuken*" when the target was "prefecture." Other words were classified as L1 because they were written in romanized Japanese, not English. For example, students wrote "*ciyalakutare*" instead of "character," "Mituki" for "Mickey," "Mini" for "Minnie," "Ulutoraman" for "Ultraman," and "Hanpti Danpti" for "Humpty Dumpty." In conclusion, both research questions were answered in the affirmative: The writing was scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook and the writing was unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher.

Discussion

In precommunicative activities learner language is scripted vis-à-vis the teacher and scripted vis-à-vis the textbook. On the other hand, the results illustrate the notion that in communicative activities learner language is unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher and is either scripted or unscripted vis-à-vis the textbook. The results also suggest that the way the Q&A task was designed (real, not practice questions were written) encouraged communicative, as opposed to precommunicative, outcomes. Perhaps one reason that communicative outcomes resulted is that the Q&A task may have prompted the

learners to draw on their total repertoire to produce writing that reflected their interests and purposes. Another implication is that this study illustrates how a precommunicative activity like the copying activity can be modified to become a communicative activity like the Q&A task for the purpose of helping learners develop active communication skills and practical communicative competence.

This study clarifies characteristics of scripted and unscripted language from the standpoint of the teacher and the standpoint of the textbook. A deeper understanding of the scripted-unscripted distinction can be useful for teachers in determining whether textbooks and teaching practices they use match CLT theory. This study examines the notion that not only unscripted writing vis-à-vis the textbook, but also that scripted writing vis-à-vis the textbook can be used in a communicative activity if the language is unscripted vis-à-vis the teacher.

Relating the study to other research in the EFL field, the study illustrates what Finocchiaro and Brumfit (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 68) mean by an activity in which "the teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use." Textbook dialogues play an important part in precommunicative activities, but textbook dialogues alone are not enough to successfully implement all three parts of a CLT lesson. Therefore, while Torikai's observation ("Professor calls," 2000, p. 8) that there are more dialogues in textbooks than before may be valid, one could not conclude from that observation that CLT in Japan is being fully implemented. Furthermore, this study, by describing a communicative activity, clarifies the point made by Gorsuch (1999) and Ford (2000) that precommunicative activities alone are not enough to fully implement the communicative approach.

In conclusion, by making explicit what the Ministry of Education's goals are, by highlighting differences between

precommunicative and communicative activities in CLT, by describing aspects of scripted and unscripted writing, and by illustrating theory with actual learner writing, this paper clarifies issues that pertain to implementing the communicative approach for the development of L2 learners' active communication skills and practical communicative competence.

Author Note

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Appendix A : Q&A Task Directions, English translation

Here is the Daily Notebook Homework. Every week please write one question to Peter. On the top of the page write the question in Japanese. At the bottom of the page write the same question in English. Below that Peter will answer in English. Don't ask practice questions such as "How is the weather?" Write a question when you want to know the answer. When you write the question, don't use a dictionary or a textbook. Write the question by yourself. Any question is okay. For example, you can write a quiz show-type question or more than one question. Don't forget to write your name, class, and number on the cover of your notebook, okay? Example : "Peter, what sport do you like the best?" ("I like cross-country skiing. —Peter")

Appendix B : Textbooks and Materials Entered in the Database

Name of teaching material	Type of teaching material
Sunshine 1	textbook
Sunshine 2	textbook
Directions for the Q&A task	activity handout
Jikoshokai [Self-introduction]	activity handout
"When is your birthday?"	activity handout
Find the bank robber	activity handout
"What were they doing?"	activity handout
"What are you going to eat?"	activity handout
"Nothing special"	activity handout
Jitsuryoku hyoka mondai	first term final exam
"I think that . . ."	activity handout
Bingo	activity handout
Message game	activity handout
"How will the weather be?"	activity handout
Shopping game	activity handout
"Which ~ do you like the best?"	activity handout
"Guess!"	activity handout

Note. Each student received a copy of the textbooks, the activity handouts, and, after the test was administered, the first term final exam. The activity handout "What are you going to eat?" was published by the Kairyudo Editing Department (1996, p. 16).

Appendix C : Given-Given Scripted Message Analysis

1. Student's name: Takashi
2. English message: Have you ever visited London?
3. Japanese message: *Anata wa Rondon o otozureta kotoga arimasuka.*
4. Target message: Have you ever visited London?

5. Searched in the database for:	Found:
Have you ever visited London?	yes
6. Syntax introduced in the textbook: Have you ever visited London?	
7. Other syntax introduced in the textbook: Yes, I've visited it many times.	
8. Morphemes introduced in the textbook: have, you, ever, visit, -ed, London	
9. How the student writing relates to the textbook: given-given	
10. Notes:	

11. Message number: 42 of 132

Appendix D : Given-New Unscripted Message Analysis

1. Student's name: Nao
2. English message: Do you like this school?
3. Japanese message: *Peter-sensei kono gakko wa suki desu ka.*
4. Target message: Peter, do you like this school?

5. Searched in the database for:	Found:
Peter	yes
do you like this school?	no
do you like	yes
this school	no
this	yes
school	yes
do you like this	no

6. Syntax introduced in the textbook: Do you like music?
7. Other syntax introduced in the textbook: They enjoy this class very much.
8. Morphemes introduced in the textbook: Peter, do, you, like, this, school
9. How the student writing relates to the textbook: given-new
10. Notes:

11. Message number: 1 of 132

Appendix D, continued : Given-New Unscripted Message Analysis

1. Student's name: Nao
2. English message: I like this school very much.
3. Japanese message: [none written]
4. Target message: I like this school very much.

5. Searched in the database for:	Found:
I like this school very much	no
I like this school	no
this school	no
very much	yes
I like . . . very much	yes
this	yes
school	yes

6. Syntax introduced in the textbook: I like this prize the best of all.
7. Other syntax introduced in the textbook: I like music very much.
8. Morphemes introduced in the textbook: I, like, this, school, very, much
9. How the student writing relates to the textbook: given-new
10. Notes:

11. Message number: 2 of 132

Appendix E : New-New Unscripted Message Analysis

1. Student's name: Yuka
2. English message: Peter, What do you a blood aroup?
3. Japanese message: *Peter wa nani gata desu ka.*
4. Target message: Peter, what is your blood group?

5. Searched in the database for:	Found:
Peter	yes
What is your blood group	no
What do you	yes
What is your	no
What's your	yes
blood	no
aroup	no
group	yes
type	no
6. Syntax introduced in the textbook: What's your name? What's your hobby?	
7. Other syntax introduced in the textbook: Then a group of young people started doing volunteer work.	
8. Morphemes introduced in the textbook: What do you, What's your, group	
9. How the student writing relates to the textbook: new-new	
10. Notes: Asking one's blood type is common in conversation in Japan.	

11. Message number: 74 of 132

Appendix F : L1-New Unscripted Message Analysis

1. Student's name: Yuka
2. English message: Peter, how many todoufuken do you have?
3. Japanese message: *Peter todofuken wa zenbu de ikutsu desho?*
4. Target message: Peter, how many prefectures are there in all?

5. Searched in the database for:	Found:
Peter	yes
how many	yes
todofuken [or] todoufuken	no
do you have	yes
prefecture	no
are there	yes
in	yes
all	yes
in all	no
6. Syntax introduced in the textbook: How many sisters do you have?	
7. Other syntax introduced in the textbook: How many students are there in your school?	
8. Morphemes introduced in the textbook: Peter, how, many, do, you, have, are, there, in, all	
9. How the student writing relates to the textbook: L1-new	
10. Notes: Yuka wrote *todoufuken* instead of prefecture.	

11. Message number: 92 of 132

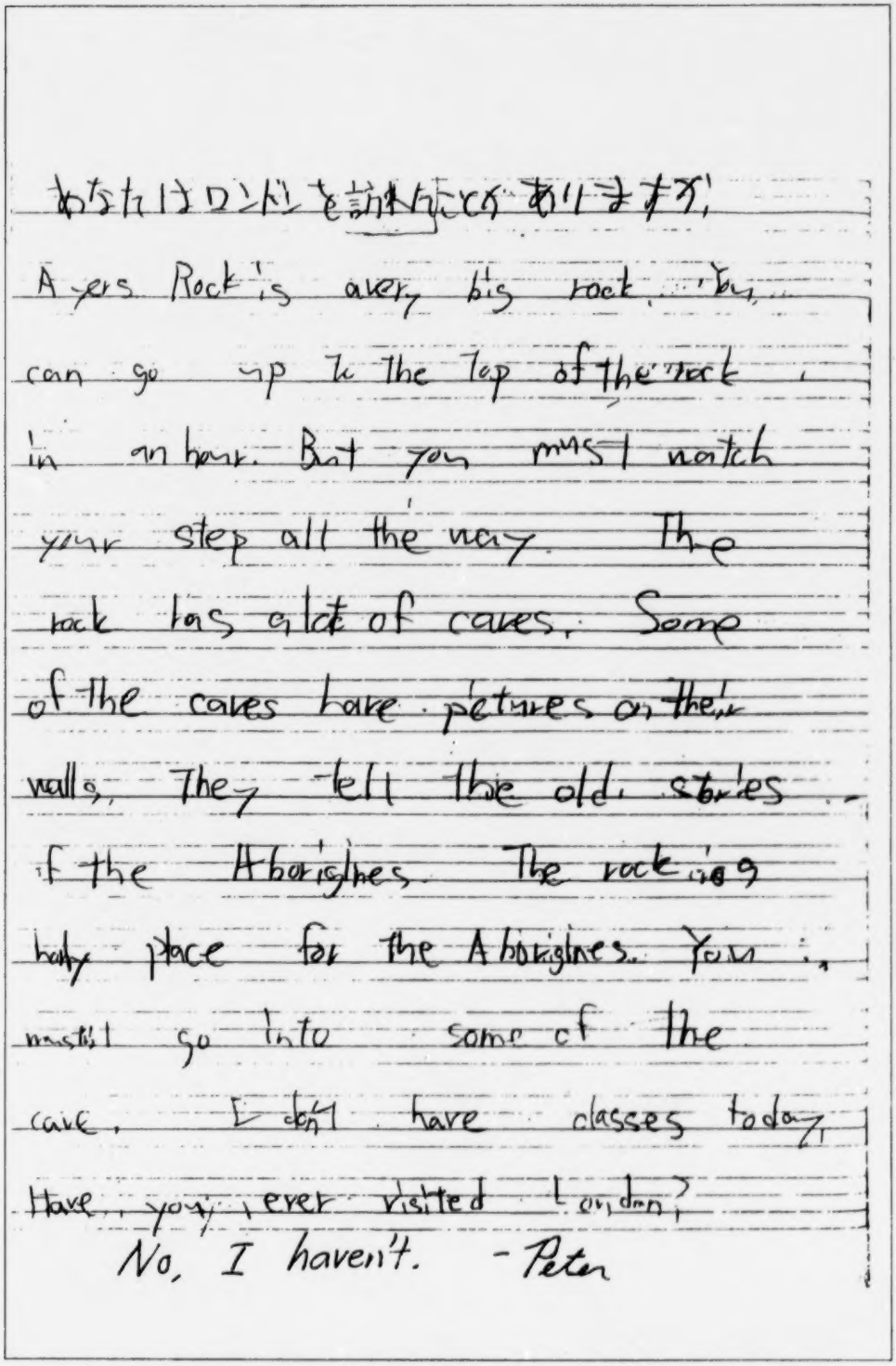

Figure 1. A given-given scripted message from Takashi's notebook.

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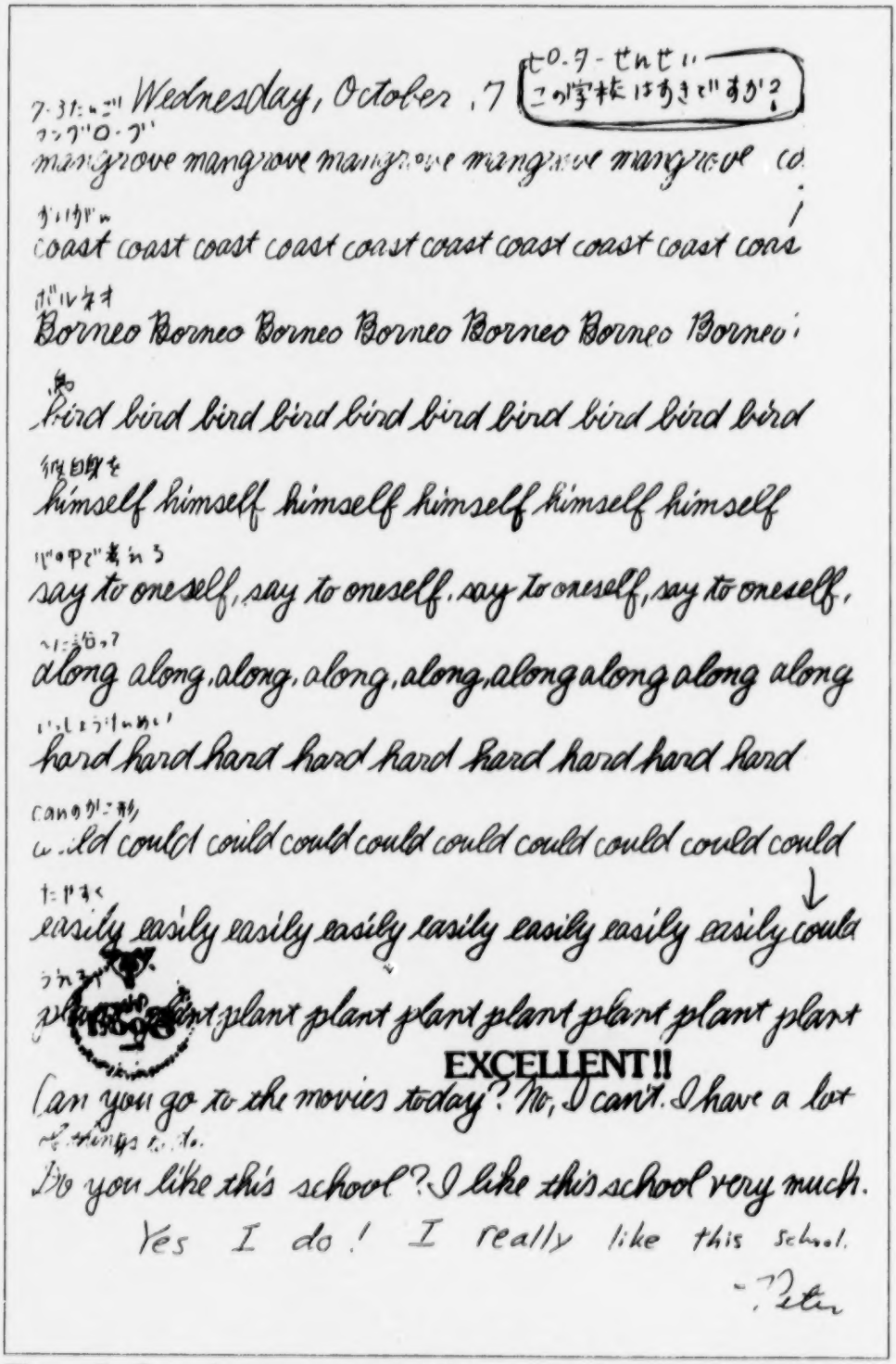

Figure 2. Two given-new unscripted messages from Nao's notebook.

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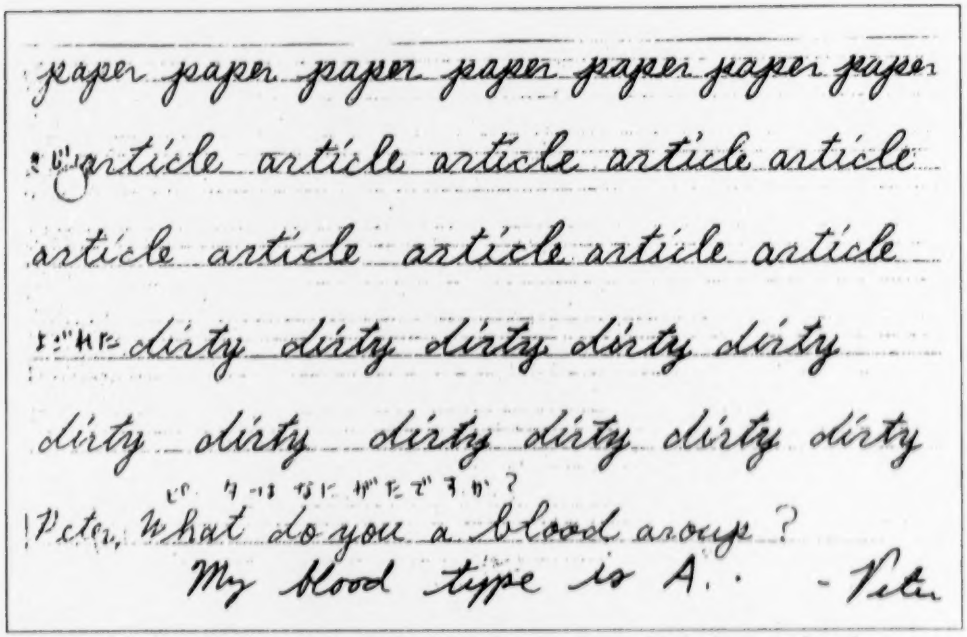

Figure 3. A new-new unscripted message from Yuka's notebook.

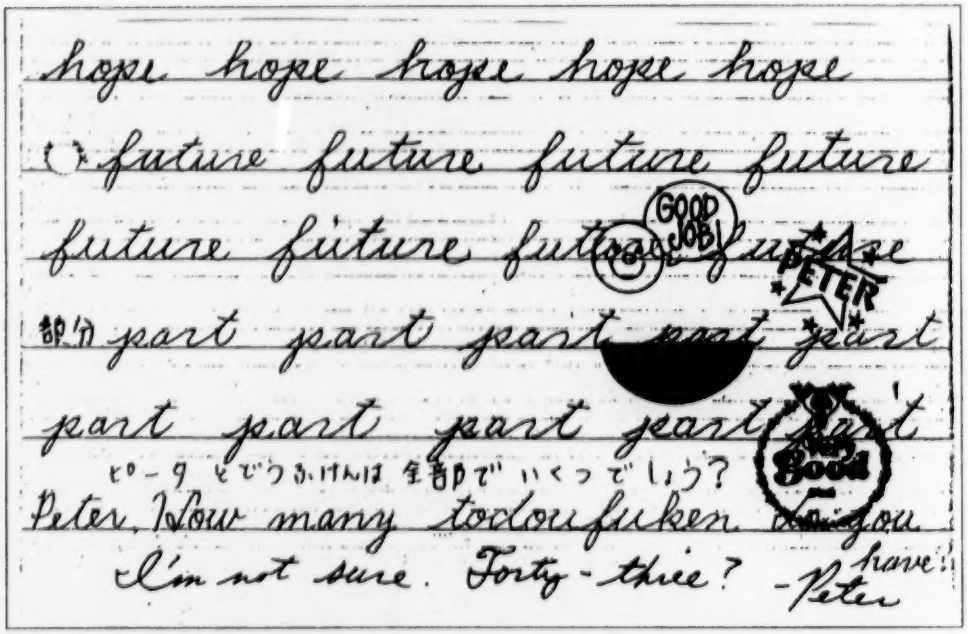

Figure 4. An L1-new unscripted message from Yuka's notebook.

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